Helix Conformations in 7TM Membrane Proteins Determined Using Oriented-Sample Solid-State NMR with Multiple Residue-Specific $^{15}$N Labeling

Thomas Vosegaard,* Miya Kamihira-Ishijima,† Anthony Watts,‡ and Niels Chr. Nielsen*

*Center for Insoluble Protein Structures (inSPIN), Interdisciplinary Nanoscience Center (iNANO) and Department of Chemistry, University of Aarhus, Aarhus, Denmark; and †Biomembrane Structure Unit, Biochemistry Department, Oxford University, Oxford, United Kingdom

ABSTRACT Oriented solid-state NMR in combination with multiple-residue-specific $^{15}$N labeling and extensive numerical spectral analysis is proposed to determine helix conformations of large membrane proteins in native membranes. The method is demonstrated on uniaxially oriented samples of $^{15}$N-methionine, -valine, and -glycine-labeled bacteriorhopsin in native purple membranes. Experimental two-dimensional $^1$H-$^{15}$N dipole-dipole coupling versus $^{15}$N chemical shift spectra for all samples are analyzed numerically to establish combined constraints on the orientation of the seven transmembrane helices relative to the membrane bilayer normal. Since the method does not depend on specific resonance assignments and proves robust toward nonidealities in the sample alignment, it may be generally feasible for the study of conformational arrangement and function-induced conformation changes of large integral membrane proteins.

INTRODUCTION

Obtaining information about three-dimensional structures, dynamics, and functionally induced conformational changes of membrane proteins at atomic resolution is a major challenge to gaining insights into function. Although this task is well established for globular proteins, as manifested by more than 30,000 structures in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) (1), the number of structures and complete functional descriptions for membrane proteins and other proteins in insoluble environments is still very limited. Labeling difficulties, purification, and size, especially with associated functionally and structurally stabilizing lipids, prevent the ready use of liquid-state NMR for structural resolution. Difficulties in crystallization explain the relatively small number of structures determined using x-ray diffraction (XRD). For proteins where these traditional structure-determination methods fail, any experiment that sheds light on the three-dimensional arrangement of the protein and function-related conformational changes will be of great value for understanding function.

Over the past decade, major efforts have been invested in the development of solid-state NMR spectroscopy as a viable technique for structural studies of membrane proteins (2–5). So far, solid-state NMR studies on large membrane proteins has mainly been focused on high-precision determination of local structural features, such as measurement of specific interatomic distances (5–8), ligand-receptor interactions (9,10), or conformations of small domains of proteins (8). Along with progress in solid-state NMR methodology, a number of atomic-resolution protein structures from solid-state NMR have recently been presented (11–21). These structures are all of smaller proteins with 50–150 amino acids, determined using magic-angle spinning (MAS) NMR for microcrystalline samples of globular proteins or for smaller membrane peptides/proteins using oriented-sample solid-state NMR with the peptides/proteins oriented macroscopically in phospholipid bilayers. Recently, efforts have been invested in solid-state NMR characterization of larger membrane proteins in the 7 transmembrane-helix (7TM) class, including “powder”- and oriented-sample studies of bacteriorhodopsin (bR) (22–29) and the G-protein coupled receptor CXCR1 (30), as well as MAS NMR of sensory rhodopsin II (31), although no structures have been presented yet.

With the aim of resolving the structures of large membrane proteins, we recently made a numerical analysis of the potential of oriented-sample solid-state NMR for structural analysis of the commercially important class of 7TM membrane proteins, which includes G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) (32). Although the analysis indicated a potential for structural studies using multidimensional experiments for uniformly $^{15}$N-labeled proteins of this size, it was also clear that a prerequisite for full structural analysis of uniformly labeled samples using oriented samples is that they align at least as well as demonstrated for a number of smaller membrane-bound peptides reconstituted into phospholipid bilayers (13,14,16,17). For many membrane proteins, however, such a high degree of alignment may be very hard to obtain, since imperfect alignment governed by...
mosaic spread appears to be an intrinsic property of a number of smaller peptides/proteins (33–36), as well as for larger membrane proteins in native membranes (37). The key problem is that imperfect alignment translates into significant line broadening and thereby inevitably increases the risks for overlap of resonances, which cannot be resolved even using time-costly experiments with many spectral dimensions. One way to alleviate this problem is to reduce the number of resonances by residue-specific labeling, even though such an approach also reduces the structural information that can be extracted from a single sample. Following this strategy, we recently demonstrated that in combination with numerical spectrum analysis it is indeed possible to obtain structural information in form of conformations of the TM helices, in this particular case for [15N]Met-labeled bR in native purple membranes (27).

In this work, we propose for the first time, to our knowledge, the use of multiple residue specific labeling in combination with extensive computer analysis to establish detailed structural information for large membrane proteins in two-dimensional (2D) arrays using oriented solid-state NMR spectroscopy. By acquiring 2D NMR spectra for several different residue-specifically 15N-labeled samples and exploiting advanced numerical data analysis approaches, the number of resonances in each spectrum is kept sufficiently low to allow a reliable interpretation, and by combining the analysis of spectra with different residue labels, a sufficiently large number of structural constraints is retained. This approach, which in this study is demonstrated for bR in native purple membranes, relieves the requirement for extremely well-aligned samples and opens up exciting new possibilities for structure/conformation analysis of the large class of integral membrane proteins in native environments, which typically is not amenable to XRD and liquid-state NMR, nor can it be aligned sufficiently well to permit the traditional use of oriented solid-state NMR.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Solid-state NMR on uniaxially oriented samples enables direct correlation between the resonance frequencies of the nuclei residing in the protein backbone and the orientation of the peptide planes to which they belong, relative to the bilayer normal (in the situation investigated here, parallel to the external magnetic field). This feature is seen in two-dimensional PISEMA (39) spectra, which, through correlation of 1H-15N dipole-dipole coupling and 15N chemical shift of the backbone amides, give characteristic wheel-like patterns for the transmembrane helices of uniformly 15N-labeled peptides. The shape and position of the wheel pattern, referred to as a polarization-index slant-angle (PISA) wheel, depends on the helix geometry and its orientation relative to the membrane (32,41,42). The major challenge in the analysis of membrane proteins with more than one transmembrane helix is to resolve all resonances and assign them to individual helix PISA wheels. This task is complicated by the fact that for similarly oriented helices, the wheels may have a very similar appearance, since the wheel shape depends mainly on the helix conformation but only very little on the primary sequence. This implies that even for samples displaying a very high degree of alignment, a PISEMA experiment would be able to resolve ~50% of the 15N resonances for typical 30 kDa membrane proteins (32). For large membrane proteins, this situation may be further complicated by larger disorder of the alignment (37) leading to broader resonances and, thereby, poorer spectral resolution.

In this study, we reduce the resolution problem by simultaneous analysis of multiple samples with different residue-specific 15N labeling. This approach has several advantages: 1) each spectrum will be less crowded due to a reduced number of resonances; 2) the separation of resonances from different amino acids into different spectra creates an appreciable difference between the different helices since they differ in primary sequence, and 3) using several samples with labeling of different amino acids, it is possible to obtain a large number of structural constraints in a combined analysis. In the following, we will demonstrate the power of this approach on bR, which is significantly larger than other proteins so far subjected to detailed structural investigation.
by oriented-sample solid-state NMR. In a preliminary study of \([^{15}N]\text{Met-bR} \,(27)\), we demonstrated that even in the case of broad resonances and apparent low resolution, it is possible to exploit the fact that the resonance positions provide, in a sensitive manner, information about the orientation of the peptide plane rather than amino acid assignment, with minor perturbations due to secondary structure as typically encountered in liquid-state or non-oriented-sample solid-state NMR spectra. This orientational dependence of chemical shift implies that any lineshape information (e.g., elongated, curved shape), or uneven intensity distribution present for the broad resonances in 2D PISEMA or \(^1H, ^{15}N\) chemical shift correlated spectra, may numerically be deconvoluted to unravel the presence of a given number of resonances with different line positions, lineshapes, and potentially intensity. Although not fully assigned, a reasonable set of resonance positions provides, immediately, a set of accurate constraints on the orientation of the involved peptide planes. This is ascribed to the fact that each pair of \(^{15}N\) chemical shift and \(^1H-^{15}N\) dipolar coupling is compatible only with a specific set of orientational angles for the peptide planes, or a certain set of helix-tilt and rotational-pitch angles, provided assumptions on the participation of the peptide planes in helical structures are imposed on the analysis.

To demonstrate this approach, and the power of the numerical analysis of oriented solid-state NMR spectra, a numerical test was carried out based on the known structures of the M1 and M2 helices of the sarcoplasmic reticulum calcium ATPase (43) with \(^{15}N\) labeling of the alanine residues (Fig. 1). As illustrated by the red labels in the ribbon structures (Fig. 1a) and the corresponding helical wheels (Fig. 1b), the M1 and M2 helices contain three and six alanine residues, respectively. To mimic this case as closely as possible with the analysis of the conformation of the helices in bR, the two ATPase helices were replaced with ideal helices with all backbone torsion angles \(\phi = -65^\circ\), \(\psi = -40^\circ\). For the test, we assume that the two helices are characterized by helix-tilt (\(\tau\)) and rotational-pitch (\(\rho\)) angles \(\tau^{\text{M1}} = 13.92^\circ\), \(\rho^{\text{M1}} = 66^\circ\) and \(\tau^{\text{M2}} = 185.9^\circ\), \(\rho^{\text{M2}} = 88^\circ\), which, assuming typical \(^{15}N\) chemical shielding, \(^1H-^{15}N\)-dipolar-coupling tensor parameters, and line widths of 1 kHz in the indirect (\(^1H-^{15}N\) dipolar coupling) and 10 ppm in the direct (\(^{15}N\)-shift) dimensions, lead to the “experimental” spectrum in Fig. 1c. The very large line widths were chosen to match the condition of “nonperfectly” aligned samples, and match well with our previous observations for bR (27).

In the experimental spectrum, the crosses represent the true line positions of the nine resonances, whereas the contours reflect the single, but shaped, resonance observed under assumption of the given line widths. The task is now to extract information about the helix orientations from this spectrum using knowledge from the primary sequence alone, along with assumptions on the torsion angles and typical sizes of the chemical shift and dipolar coupling parameters.

\[\tau^{\text{M1}} = 13.92^\circ, \rho^{\text{M1}} = 66^\circ, \tau^{\text{M2}} = 185.9^\circ, \rho^{\text{M2}} = 88^\circ.\]
From the primary sequence and information from hydropathy plots, it is reasonable to assume that there are two helices, and that three alanines are present in one helix and six in the other helix, with the given positions in the primary sequence. Combined with the assumption of ideal helix-torsion angles, the latter information “links” the orientational constraints of the nine peptide planes (18 angles in total) to the four angles, \( \tau_{M1}, \rho_{M1}, \tau_{M2}, \) and \( \rho_{M2} \), representing the tilt and rotational-pitch angles for the two helices. The remaining free variables concern the lineshape of the resonances, where we assume Gaussian lines with identical line width for all resonances in the two dimensions (i.e., in total, two parameters, the linewidth in the indirect dimension and the linewidth in the direct dimension, are added as free variables in the optimization). To keep the number of variables low, we additionally assume that all resonances appear in the spectrum with equal intensity, in agreement with our previous numerical investigations (32). Using this setup with six free variables, 100 independent optimizations employing random starting values for all six parameters were processed, giving the line positions of the nine resonances. The result is given in Fig. 1 c, where the resonance positions for all 100 independent optimizations are given by crosses: virtually all of them overlap, and the “smeared” crosses are at the line positions known from the experimental spectrum. The orientations of the helices were determined to be \( \tau_{M1} = 14 \pm 1^\circ, \rho_{M1} = 66 \pm 5^\circ, \tau_{M2} = 186 \pm 1^\circ, \) and \( \rho_{M2} = 88 \pm 5^\circ, \) as listed in Table 1, which agree favorably with the crystallographically determined values used as input values to the experimental spectrum. Also, the overall lineshape in the spectrum is reproduced very well, demonstrating the validity of the approach for a simple system with two helices and a modest number of labels.

To shift the method more toward “realistic” experimental spectra, we have repeated the same investigation but now with the experimental spectrum created from the resonance positions calculated from the ideal helices perturbed by scatter of up to 5 ppm/500 Hz (Fig. 1 e) and 10 ppm/1000 Hz (Fig. 1 g) in the \(^{15}\)N chemical shift/\(^{1}H\)\(^{15}\)N dipolar coupling dimensions. Although the experimental spectra in these cases differ significantly from the ideal spectrum in Fig. 1 c, it is still possible to determine the helix-tilt angles with quite high accuracy from these spectra. This becomes evident from the numerical values for the \( \tau \) and \( \rho \) values listed in Table 1, although the precision of the calculated helix conformations decreases as the fluctuations in resonance frequencies increase. We note that the rotational pitch becomes virtually impossible to determine as the fluctuations become large, whereas the error limits for the helix tilts remain relatively small. This observation is very encouraging, as it demonstrates that even in the case of large perturbations (10 ppm/1 kHz), the deconvolution of experimental spectra with the assumption of ideal \( \alpha \)-helices remains stable. However, for larger proteins, as demonstrated below, the spectral complexity increases so that employing a single amino acid labeling is not sufficient; thus, we add information from differently labeled samples to increase reliability and provide unambiguous conformations of all the TM helices.

With the dual aim of demonstrating the multiple residue-specific labeling approach for obtaining conformational information about large (7TM) membrane proteins, and simultaneously provide complementary structural information, bR is an ideal system. bR is a membrane protein with 7TM helices that has attracted much interest over time, not least because it is considered a model for GPCRs and is relatively easy to produce in amounts compatible with the needs for structural biology methods. Fig. 2 a gives a schematic representation of bR based on hydropathy plots and crystal structures (44). Here, the different labels considered in this study are highlighted in gray, and from the helix wheel plots (Fig. 2 b) it is evident that the seven helices have their own unique labeling pattern when considering labeling of the Gly, Met, and Val residues. This feature provides a potential route to determining helix conformation angles for all seven helices, even in the case of substantial orientational disorder (e.g., mosaic spread). The choice of labeling is a compromise between several factors:

1. Using residue-specific labeling, only residues that are not prone to biosynthetic scrambling may be used.
2. Abundant residues (like Gly and Val) provide many structural constraints, but these constraints appear as resonances in increasingly crowded spectra, whereas dilute residues (like Met) provide few, but quite precise, constraints.
3. The price of \(^{15}\)N-labeled amino acids depends strongly on the amino acid type.
4. Amino acids with labeled side-chain nitrogens yield additional resonances that may obscure the analysis.

A series of 2D PISEMA spectra for \([^{15}\text{N}]\text{Gly}-,\ [^{15}\text{N}]\text{Val}-,\) and \([^{15}\text{N}]\text{Met-bR}\) in oriented purple membranes have been recorded, with the membrane normal parallel to the magnetic field. These spectra are shown in Fig. 3. For each of the three bR samples, two separate broad peaks located around 210...
ppm and 60 ppm in the $^{15}$N chemical shift dimension are observed, with the most intense peak, at 210 ppm, characteristic of transmembrane helices. The peak at 60 ppm is attributed to $^{15}$N signals from the loop regions and from the N- and C-termini for the case of $[^{15}$N$]$Gly-bR. For comparison, Fig. 3a shows the simulated PISEMA spectrum for an unoriented “powder” peptide sample. It is clear that the spectrum for a sample with no preferential ordering is significantly different from the experimental PISEMA spectra described here, with the most apparent difference the accumulation of intensity around 60 ppm and only weak traces of signal at higher frequencies in the “powder” spectrum. It is also evident from the figure that the spectral features, although not perfectly resolved, are different for the different labeling patterns.

The PISEMA spectra for the $[^{15}$N$]$Gly-, $[^{15}$N$]$Val-, and $[^{15}$N$]$Met-bR samples form a unique possibility for obtaining reliable information about the helix conformations, since these spectra provide the constraints from 35–40 helix residues as judged from the secondary-structure prediction presented in Fig. 2. Since there are no strong helix-breaking motifs (although a few prolines are present) in the 7TM helices, we will assume that each of the helices may be represented by an ideal $\alpha$-helix. In support of this assumption, we note that Kim and Cross (45) reported the observation that transmembrane $\alpha$-helices seem to be more ideal than is typically reported in crystal structures.

To take full advantage of the diversity in the Gly, Val, and Met $^{15}$N-labeling pattern of the seven helices in bR, a simultaneous numerical analysis of the three spectra has been performed, in which the PISEMA spectra are simulated as a function of the seven pairs of helix-tilt and rotational-pitch angles, and these variables are optimized to yield the minimum root mean-square (RMS) deviation between the
spectra, mosaic spread manifests as unique elongated lineshapes, which is taken into consideration in our numerical analysis. To avoid bias toward information from specific spectra, the RMS deviation for each of the spectra was weighted according to their signal/noise ratios as

\[
RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_X} \sum_{X=\text{Gly, Met, or Val}} \frac{1}{\text{SN}_X} \sum_{i=1}^{X} \left( S_{X}^{\text{exp}}(i) - S_{X}^{\text{sim}}(i) \right)^2 },
\]

where \( n_X \) represents the number of data points in the PISEMA spectra, \( S_{X}^{\text{exp}}(i) \) and \( S_{X}^{\text{sim}}(i) \) the intensity in the \( i \)th experimental and simulated datapoints, respectively, in the PISEMA spectrum with labeling of amino acid \( X \) (Gly, Met, or Val), and \( \text{SN}_X \) the signal/noise ratio for this spectrum. Simulations were performed using SIMPSON (46,47) and SIMMOL (47,48) simulation software. Obviously, the numerical optimization of the 14 orientational parameters is prone to getting trapped in local minima. To reduce the possibility of such faulty interpretations, we performed a series of 1000 independent optimizations and only proceeded with data analysis for the optimizations yielding the lowest RMS deviations. To cover the 16-dimensional parameter space as thoroughly as possible, each optimization started with random input values for the seven helix tilts between 0\(^\circ\) and 30\(^\circ\), whereas the random values for the rotational pitch were between 0\(^\circ\) and 360\(^\circ\).

Fig. 4a shows the sorted RMS deviations from these optimizations, which display a monotonically growing pattern with a single broad plateau. This may be indicative of either one well-defined global minimum or a broad continuum of solutions, whereas several plateaus in the RMS plot are typically indicative of several different solutions. It is clear from the plots of the helix-tilt angles in Fig. 4b, in which the 250 optimizations with lowest RMS values have been selected, that the system here belongs to the category having a broad continuum of solutions. This does not, therefore, permit selection of the best optimizations to represent the final result because of too large a fluctuation in the tilt angles. On the other hand, the projections of the statistical distribution of the helix-tilt angles along the vertical axes in Fig. 4 reveal that there are preferential values for the helix-tilt angles for most of the helices, as observed by fits to a Gaussian distribution function. The peak positions and half-width half-heights of the resulting helix-tilt angle, and uncertainty, respectively, are given in Table 2. To demonstrate the quality of the simulations, Fig. 3, c, e, and g, reports typical simulated spectra for the labeled residues located in the helical regions, achieved using the helix-tilt parameters from the simulations with the lowest RMS values. We observe that the simulations for the three labeling patterns are highly different and that each matches the features in the helix part (150–220 ppm) of the corresponding experimental spectrum in a very nice manner.
For evaluation of the correctness and reliability of the method described here, average, minimum, and maximum helix-tilt angles from a number of published structures of bR are given in Table 2. Good agreement between the values determined here and those previously reported by XRD determination methods is observed for most helices. In particular, the tilt angles for helices B–F agree with the XRD values within a few degrees, whereas the differences are somewhat larger for helices A and G. The origin of these deviations is not completely understood but may be ascribed to local variations in the peptide plane orientations (static or dynamical), which may be translated into uncertainties in the orientational angles of the helices by assuming ideal torsion angles. We note that the tilts of helices A, B, D, and F seem to be determined with quite high precision, whereas the precision is lower for helices C, E, and G. It can be concluded, therefore, that this method provides data of quite high precision and reliability.

It is of interest to investigate how many different labels are needed for an analysis of the kind presented here to be valuable. To address this question, analysis of the possible subsets of data using only one or two different labels was carried out. Fig. 5 shows the results of this analysis, and it is noted that the lower row corresponds to the tilt-angle distributions from Fig. 4. In Fig. 5 some of the data is missing since the labeling combination in question provided no constraints to the particular helix tilt, and hence, these labeling combinations represent highly undesirable combinations. Overall, the results from employing three labels give the best results in terms of narrow distributions, and
Furthermore, combinations without the dilute Met sample generally provide rather poor results. On the other hand, using only the Met sample is not a good solution either, since helices C and F contain no Met residues, whereas helices D, E, and G each contain only one Met residue and are hence indistinguishable from the Met sample alone.

As with all rigid-atom structure determinations, this study contributes more to the structure and less to the biological understanding of bR, which is probably the most well-characterized membrane protein of all. However, it is important to emphasize the perspectives of applying this method to other, less well-characterized membrane proteins, where any structural detail provides new and important information. For this, the potential for the technique discussed here is very good. The main reason lies in sample preparation, where this method simplifies the requirement of traditional techniques like liquid-state NMR or XRD in the sample preparation. For liquid-state NMR studies, a ~40-KDa protein needs to be rapidly tumbling in solution. Although recent TROSY techniques have improved this (49, 50), it still represents the major limitation of liquid-state NMR for studying large membrane proteins complexed with lipids. For XRD, the major obstacle is the difficulty in crystallizing membrane proteins and then obtaining suitable diffraction, which, for example, manifests itself in the fact that despite the enormous research and commercial interest in GPCRs, only one crystal structure for this class of proteins has been solved, namely that of rhodopsin (51), and in this case for a ground state only. Even compared to traditional approaches for solid-state NMR, either MAS or oriented-sample, this method simplifies the sample preparation, since it does not necessarily rely on high-resolution spectra and thereby most likely will turn out successfully for proteins for which a perfect alignment is not achievable.

Perhaps even more important, the method has good potential for extrapolation to functional studies. By activating a membrane-embedded protein in situ, and recording NMR spectra before and after activation, these functionally sensitive structural elements will be resolved through difference spectra. There would therefore be no need for new samples.

To apply this analysis to large membrane proteins of unknown structure, we envisage that the following procedure will be efficient. First, the putative transmembrane helices are identified in the primary structure, e.g., based on helix-propensity calculations, which permit a structural model such as the one in Fig. 1 b to be established. At this point, the primary sequence should be carefully analyzed for helix breaking or kinking motifs such as Gly-X-Y-Pro or just Pro residues. In the case of the presence of such motifs, each side of the helix flanking the motif should be treated as individual helices in the subsequent analysis. From the structural model, it is possible to determine the labeling patterns of the helices and choose labeled residues to maximize the difference between the helices in the NMR spectra. The rest of the data analysis may be performed as described here.

**CONCLUSIONS**

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that oriented-sample solid-state NMR of residue-specific labeled proteins may provide a feasible route for conformational studies of large membrane proteins, such as the 7TM receptors. This has been demonstrated by determining helix-tilt angles for bR on the basis of $^{15}$N-Met, Val-, and Gly-labeled samples of bR in

### TABLE 2 Helix tilts for the seven transmembrane helices of bR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helix</th>
<th>This work</th>
<th>Ref. 27</th>
<th>Literature average</th>
<th>Literature minimum</th>
<th>Literature maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>13 ± 5</td>
<td>18–22</td>
<td>24.0 ± 1.2</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2 ± 3</td>
<td>1–5</td>
<td>4.9 ± 2.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>7 ± 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.0 ± 2.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>12 ± 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.1 ± 2.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>10 ± 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.9 ± 1.8</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>15 ± 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.5 ± 0.8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>7 ± 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.0 ± 0.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Literature values represent the average, minimum, and maximum tilt angles from a number of published bR structures (PDB entry codes 1AP9, 1AT9, 1C3W, 1FBB, 1W6, 1KGB, 1M0L, 1QHJ, 1QM8, 1X0K, 1XH, and 2AT9). The tilt angles are obtained as the tilt angle of an ideal α-helix aligned with helices from the PDB structures. The error limits on the literature average value represent the standard deviation on the angles among the 12 structures.

![Helix-tilt distributions resulting from optimizations employing only the data listed in the leftmost column for the seven helices (A–G). Missing plots are due to the lack of data for the particular helix, and gray plots are those with only one $^{15}$N label in the particular helix.](image)
native membranes. In the cases presented here, the overall alignments of the bR samples were relatively poor, with mosaic spread of 5–8°, which severely hampers a more detailed structural characterization on the one hand, but on the other hand demonstrates that a similar analysis may be performed for the class of large membrane proteins where perfect alignment of the protein containing native membranes is currently unavailable. It could be envisaged that the method will find applications for studying conformation changes upon membrane protein activation, and along with the production of better alignment protocols, the method may offer the possibility to determine full structures of large membrane proteins.

Financial support from the Danish National Research Foundation, Carlsbergfondet, the Danish Biotechnological Instrument Centre, the Danish Natural Science Research Foundation, the United Kingdom Medical Research Council, and the Bionanotechnology Interdisciplinary Research Collaboration (Oxford, U.K.) is acknowledged.

REFERENCES


